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EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS IN 1908¹

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Your committee presents in this report a collection of facts welded into a whole by a conception. We do not imply that the conception is established by the facts; but we believe that the conception has been serviceable—as a kind of glue to hold the facts together, or an amber sphere in which to embed them. The facts came first, and we have simply clapped the theory about them. Theory plays at least this part in progress—it illuminates experience. It helps us to guess at the meaning of the comedy we are enacting, and so to play our several rôles with some poor discernment, or to forecast the direction of our march, and so to march, as we like to think, direct.

Our conception is the common conception of our time—the theory of evolution. We are using Thomas Davidson's idea that education is the evolutionary process become conscious of itself; and we are taking without more ado Herbert Spencer's evolu-

¹A report by the Committee on Educational Progress of the Harvard Teachers' Association, presented at the annual meeting of the Association, March, 1909. Committee: Henry W. Holmes, *Chairman*; Mrs. Fanny Fern Andrews, Boston, Mass., *Secretary*; Miss Ella Bradley, Boston, Mass.; James E. Downey, High School of Commerce, Boston, Mass.; Nathan C. Hamblin, Tabor Academy, Marion, Mass.; Clair S. Pearsons, Supt., Warren, R. I.; Walter H. Cushing, High School, Framingham, Mass.; Willard Reed, Cambridge, Mass.; William D. Parkinson, Superintendent, Waltham, Mass.

tionary formula, that progress, in society as in nature, means integration of a whole with accompanying differentiation of function in the several parts. Education, we have been willing to assume, is a conscious effort of society to organize its life, to the end that the people may be one body, wherein each may perform his separate office at once for his own good and for the good of all.

This effort is but partly comprehended in the work of the schools, but the schools are asked to cover more and more of it. We call upon the schools to give us men fitted more and more definitely to their social relationships—to give us better fathers, better neighbors, better citizens, better workers in every field—and to see to it that each shall fulfil his minor function, as tinker, or merchant, or prime minister, with intent and power to serve also his widest membership in the family of humanity.

Thus the schools are asked to adapt their work more and more closely to the individual in order that none may miss his opportunity for a rich, significant, and happy life; and at the same time to take heed of the demand which society in its turn lays upon all its members, to fulfil the obligations to social living. In these terms, then, we have read our facts, feeling sure that the school has a part to play in that progress the end of which is individual freedom in a united community.

Some of our facts, however, have only an indirect reference to the organizing of social life through the schools; they point chiefly to the organization of the school itself as an institution—yet here, too, we believe that the evolutionary conception is illuminating. Integration of educational forces is a marked trend of the times; but scarcely less marked is the trend toward differentiation of educational functions. We have thought that we could see, within the schools themselves, progress toward true organization, wherein each individual shall be enabled to serve the whole freely, in his own sort. Thus we present two bodies of fact to illustrate two phases of progress—the organization of social life through the agency of the school and the organization of the school itself as an institution.

It should be said here that the present report is but the second

in a series which we hope will merit continuance.² In some cases, therefore, we have gone back of 1908, to "pick up loose threads."

I

Both the phases of progress which we have recorded have been carried on by various means. The first is legislation; and our first topic is accordingly *legislation to render education more efficient as an agent in the organization of society*.

Of this sort of legislation we cite first that which is (*a*) *national*. In speaking of legislation we must recognize as progress, in one part of the country, steps which in other sections are facts of history. The contrast in educational opportunities afforded in the several portions of our common land should be regarded as a serious menace to the peace and progress of the nation. Complete mutual understanding is not to be expected under such a handicap. It should be the concern of the nation to equalize opportunities, at least approximately. If it may not come directly to the support of public education, it certainly may exercise as solicitous an oversight of educational interests as it does of agricultural interests.

In the direction of such oversight we may note certain bills not yet passed. First, there is the bill for a National Bureau of Child-Welfare, to deal with child-hygiene and child-labor, and perhaps only indirectly with schooling. This bill has been introduced in the Senate by Senator Crane. Second, there is the Davis bill, providing for national aid to agricultural instruction in public schools, which failed in the last session of Congress, but will doubtless be revived in some form in the present or coming session. These are direct efforts to make American education a greater force for individual efficiency and national solidarity.

Under (*b*) *state* legislation the first thing to note is the trend in favor of industrial education. Several states, including Wisconsin, New York, New Jersey, and Maryland, have taken steps to investigate industrial conditions and educational opportunities,

² The first report in the series was "Educational Progress for 1907," by Charles R. Allen, *Chairman, The School Review*, May, 1908, Vol. XVI, pp. 296-319.

as Massachusetts did in 1905. Fair-minded men will not see in this movement an attempt to bind the worker more closely to his wheel, nor to narrow the youth prematurely to the special demands of a vocation: industrial schools will serve rather to humanize the industries, as the Religious Education Association hopes, and will give to youth who might become, in the apt phrase of Professor Hanus, "sophisticated but not educated" by their shifting experience, the opportunity to learn a trade while at the same time they learn something of that larger life in which the trade is but an incident.

In Massachusetts the most conspicuous features of recent legislation are: the law requiring cities and towns to vote upon the playground question—resulting in a surprising demonstration of popular sentiment in favor of public playgrounds; the law making special instruction as to tuberculosis and its prevention a part of the public-school curriculum; and the establishment of a hospital school, affording opportunity for the education of children whose crippled condition forbids attendance upon the common school.

This last is one more step toward the free education of every educable child. But, like much of Massachusetts legislation, it is not made a part of a consistent scheme. The school is so isolated from all other parts of the educational system that its existence is scarcely known to them; and while intended to be within the reach of all, is neither squarely a free public institution nor frankly a charitable institution, being rather upon that non-descript basis of mixed charity and privilege which characterizes so much of the state's expenditure for education.

An advance in the New Jersey state law on probation is worthy of note. A parent, guardian, or custodian of a child who is directly responsible for, or who by continued negligence contributes to, the delinquency of a child, is guilty of a misdemeanor; and upon trial and conviction is punishable by fine or imprisonment. Under an act approved April 13, 1908, a probation school has been established under the direction of the probation officer. The teacher is appointed by the Board of Education of Elizabeth. An interesting clause in this act requires children under the age of

seventeen, although they may have completed the grammar-school course, to attend high school unless they are regularly and lawfully employed.

This year's prospects for aggressive state legislation in education are exceptional. The dominant party in New Hampshire is committed in an unprecedented degree to educational advance. The legislative programme of Maine includes medical inspection, and the approval by the state educational department of all plans for schoolhouses to be built or remodeled.

A bill now in committee of the Massachusetts legislature would make kindergartens a part of the school system of every city of over ten thousand inhabitants. The scheme to incorporate Massachusetts College, a degree-conferring institution which is to offer its instruction in 20 or 30 "centres" throughout the state, and thus to bring higher learning to the people, is attracting wide attention.

II

Legislation to organize the school as an institution has made rapid strides. There is, first (a) *the national* attempt to centralize educational effort somewhat more thoroughly. The so-called Stephenson bill before the present Congress proposes the conversion of the Bureau of Education into a Department of Education, with a corresponding enlargement of function and an increased appropriation.

(b) *State* legislation to organize educational forces has been abundant, at least in bills introduced, and these show at any rate the ideals at work. Vermont has just provided for the state certification of teachers, and Illinois, Maine, and Connecticut propose to do the same. Pennsylvania is considering an elaborate school law, which, one hears, is much needed in the Keystone state.

Compulsory school attendance is being agitated in several of the southern states, and is meeting the same objection on the part of conservatives as it has everywhere met in its early consideration. It is protested against as a usurpation of the family prerogative and an invasion of the hallowed precincts of the

home. Pennsylvania is endeavoring, also, to strengthen and extend its compulsory law.

Connecticut, and several of the western states, are wrestling with the transfer from the district to the township unit for the control of schools. This, too, meets the same opposition as it did in Massachusetts in former days. Maine has a new law for township superintendencies, the state giving to each superintendency union \$800.

Georgia and Louisiana are moving toward the establishment or extension of high schools. Maine has adopted a high-school standard and aids towns that comply with it. Vermont makes a new departure in the appropriation of funds for a department of pedagogy at Middlebury College. Massachusetts and Maryland have enacted legislation looking to the retirement and pensioning of teachers, and Connecticut has a pension bill before its present legislature. None of the states have as yet added the feature of retirement honors by which Argentina dignifies her aged teachers. The movement toward smaller school boards has been rapid. Four Massachusetts cities have this year reduced their committees to five members. In Massachusetts, too, the governor's message, and a bill now in committee which purports to be in accordance with it, suggest the ultimate substitution of a single board for the Board of Education and the Commission on Industrial Education, a step toward complete educational reorganization, which is much needed.

These legislative activities all point toward extension of educational opportunity, closer adaptation of school work to individual and to social conditions, and better organization and control of educational agencies.

III

After legislation comes public effort of a less formal character. There is a great increase of public interest in the schools and a strong demand upon the schools to serve more directly the needs of the public.

Among *public efforts to forward the organization of social life by educational means* are attempts to enrich the life of the

individual, and only indirectly to render the individual a more serviceable member of the community. Of this sort is (a) *The Educational Theater in New York*. The educational theater movement originated with the desire to furnish a better and more improving class of entertainment for the children of the East Side, and also with the idea that the native dramatic instinct of the children should be directed toward their ethical and intellectual development. All sorts of young people took part in the undertaking—sweat-shop workers, stenographers, clerks, office boys, and students. A keen desire was developed to make a great neighborhood success. The educational effect was soon apparent. It was an important lesson in well-modulated English speech and correct expression. Lessons of nobility of character were also taught to the youth who interpreted the personages in the play, and to those who saw it. Beginning with *The Little Princess*, there followed in succession productions of *The Tempest*, *As You Like It*, *Ingomar*, *The Forest Ring*, *Little Lord Fauntleroy*, *Snow White*, and a dramatized version of Mark Twain's *The Prince and the Pauper*.

A conspicuous thing about the Children's Theater is the fact that there is no need for any outside help to keep order. The constituency regulate all this for themselves and command proprieties and decorums fitting to the occasion.

One of the triumphs of this undertaking has been the interest manifested in the presentation of Shakespeare to the East Side of New York. The initial production of *The Tempest* resulted in a sale in that neighborhood of more than a thousand paper-covered copies of the play. Another interesting result is the effect on the homes. The theater has cultivated a simpler and better taste in dress. Where before the production of *The Little Princess*, the children were fitted out with highly ornamented "best dresses," after seeing the simple dresses used in this play, the mothers came to adopt the simple dresses for the children; in fact this kind of apparel has come into vogue in the neighborhood. The stage setting, especially when this portrays home interiors, has cultivated good taste in home decorations.

A normal course for teachers, and public lectures, are now

features of the Educational Theater. The prospectus sets forth the principle that the activity of the dramatic instinct stimulates the entire human being—mentally, spiritually, and physically.

A second type of public effort aims to affect social life by direct training for the larger social relationships. Of this class is (b) *The American School Peace League*, which aims to arouse the interest of the educational public of America in the movement for promoting international justice and equity. The organization of the League is national in its scope. The League will endeavor to have the subject of internationalism presented at educational meetings throughout the country; to stimulate college and school literary and debating societies to study it; to acquaint teachers with the work of the League through the columns of educational magazines; to build up a body of literature, dealing with the interrelation between nations and peoples, which can be used by the teacher in the schoolroom; to study textbooks in history, with reference to the space devoted to war and peace; and to arrange, if possible, for courses and lectures in history to be given in summer schools and teachers' institutes, with special attention to the growth of international friendship. The International Committee is making a constructive study of international co-operation in education.

A third kind of public endeavor is the attempt to organize the "unofficial" educational activities of a community by co-operation between the public and school officers. An obvious illustration of this sort of co-operation is (c) *The St. Paul Institute of Arts and Sciences*, incorporated April 28, 1908. Aiming to combine into a single organization the various artistic, scientific, and educational interests of the city, it "is designed to transform the city into a sort of popular university for the continuous education of the entire citizenship, with special opportunities for practical instruction to those who are ineligible for the privileges of the regular public schools." The Institute has started vacation schools, provides an equipment for sewing and cooking lessons, classes for women afternoons and evenings, afternoon and evening schools in business and domestic service, evening schools for teachers, and

evening high schools, all of which are held in the public school buildings.

A fourth type of public educational activity is in reality a sign of the times—social workers are coming to believe that their work is, broadly speaking, educational. This is evidenced in part by the establishment of (*d*) *normal schools for social workers*, of which the Harvard School and the School of Philanthropy in New York are conspicuous examples.

Another evidence of lay interest in public education is the formation of (*e*) *the Department of Women's National Organizations in the National Education Association*, at its meeting in Los Angeles in 1907. These organizations are now more closely harnessed to the educational team.

IV

The direct attempt of the public to promote social organization through its own educational efforts is aided by *the utilization of the school as a direct agent in social progress*, which shows itself particularly in (*a*) *the wider use of school property*.

IN Rochester this movement is now at its height. The school has become a social center, where much of the common life of the neighborhood is lived. Some of the work is narrowly educational—that is, instructional; some of it is philanthropic; but the aim of the Rochester workers is broadly and truly social. It is to bring all classes together “to talk about the things that ought to be talked about.” Mr. Zueblin says that Rochester “has the universe by the tail.” There is a great seed in this movement. Why should the school not serve as the clearing house and meeting ground for the social life?

Less broadly social is the work of (*b*) *university extension*, which has a wide field in the Middle West, particularly among the state universities. Replies to a letter of inquiry sent out by the University of Nebraska show that twenty-two universities are planning or have already begun lecture or correspondence courses. The University of Wisconsin “intends to try to reach every section of the state and to make the university of immediate and direct value to every citizen who may need and profit from its

assistance." In some instances the work is assuming such proportions as to place it beyond the power of the regular faculties to meet its demand, and special corps of teachers are being organized in separate departments.

The Medical School of Harvard University has given free courses of lectures, open to the general public, covering a wide range of subjects relating to the public health. The interest manifested by the continued large attendance on these technical lectures has been most gratifying. It would be difficult to overestimate the practical value of this work.

Another new phase of university work for the public has been made possible by the co-operation of the Lowell Institute of Boston and Harvard University. The former has provided for the repetition, under its auspices, of certain college courses, which are thus opened free to the public, and the university has agreed to count these courses toward its degrees.

The admirable work of the New York City School Board in establishing (*c*) *public lectures*, referred to in the last report of this committee, has showed still further growth in the past year. A noteworthy addition to the scope of the lectures has been made possible by the co-operation of the various heads of the city government, who have conducted courses on the work of their several departments.

Philadelphia, Newark, N. J., New Orleans, Syracuse, and Auburn, N. Y., all report interesting progress in public lectures.

In some instances the school authorities have co-operated with other bodies for specific educational work. Thus, the Boston School Board has provided rooms for the lectures conducted by the recently organized North American Civic League for Immigrants. This organization is pledged to the betterment of the condition of the immigrant population, particularly in the direction of education for American citizenship. Lectures have been given in Yiddish and Italian and an encouraging interest shown. Many cities report special courses for teachers, generally, however, open to the public. Gloucester, Mass., Topeka, Kan., and Kalamazoo, Mich., have examples of well-organized work of this kind.

V

The public has not only worked for progress *through* the school; it has also put forth many *efforts to increase the efficiency of the school itself*. The first of these efforts in point of time as well, perhaps, as in importance is (a) *library work*.

Urged in chief as a means of making life significant to the individual, books are yet of incalculable value from the social point of view—if the right books are read. Lectures by the library staff on the use of the advantages offered, special collections reserved in the open shelves, and loan collections, are means by which the library may lend effective aid to the school. In most places teachers are practically unrestricted in the number of books they can take for their own use.

The list of institutions doing such work would include nearly all the great libraries and many small ones, but as an illustration of the extent of the work in a middle-sized manufacturing city, the facts reported from New Bedford, Mass., may be cited: Last year school loan collections of fifty volumes each were sent to all the schools of the third to the sixth grades inclusive. The school was thus constituted a branch library. Careful directions about the use of the books were pasted in the covers, but the children were allowed every liberty in choosing the volumes they took home. The lists had been made out by the librarian, himself a former headmaster. The reports of the teachers show that the total circulation in these four grades amounted to over one hundred and five thousand volumes for the year, and that in very many instances the books reached homes that had no other connection with the public library.

A kind of effort which is as yet largely from the side of the public, but which is destined finally to become a regular part of the school programme, is the work in (b) *school gardens*. There are now over 200 school gardens in Massachusetts alone. New York, Philadelphia, Washington, and Cleveland all have gardens. Whereas the first school gardens were founded for the culture of plants, to serve as specimens for botany or for the decoration of school grounds, the modern school garden is for the culture of children. It has three purposes: to acquaint the

children with plant and animal life, to train them manually and physically, and to establish certain social values—such as the habit of co-operative industry. The greatest returns come where the garden is brought into touch with the community. A school garden may reform a bad boy and an apathetic citizen at one stroke. Doubtless the most remarkable example of a city garden is the now famous garden at DeWitt Clinton Park. Those who have watched its growth from the beginning, in the year 1901, have rightly called it one of the sights of New York. Built in the slums, this spot is now a paradise of joyous activity. In a strip of land along the river are marked off over four hundred little gardens, and about forty observation plots. These are worked, during the season, by over eleven hundred children: each summer has two crops of children as well as two crops of vegetables. These are in charge of a director, who works there steadily, for at least eight months of the year. One of the features has been a little farm house which has afforded a chance for various kinds of household work. A spacious building now adjoins these grounds, where all sorts of manual occupations are carried on. As soon as the gates are opened in the morning, a steady stream of children flows in. Some are cultivating their plots; others are busy in the workshop; here is a group of boys painting labels; there are others slipping plants; still others are tinkering tools. The vegetables that have been raised are being prepared and cooked. This splendid opportunity for an all-round life, conceived and supported by private enterprise, now belongs to the Park Department of New York, which appropriates a generous sum each year for its maintenance.

Not for special purposes only, however, does the public ally itself to the school. (c) *Home and school associations* have sprung up in large numbers. While there is nothing new in the idea of mutual assistance between the parent and the teacher, yet the broad aims of the recent parents' associations indicate an attitude almost unlike that which prompted the first organization of parents and teachers. To get the parents to help the teacher in her efforts to develop the child and to assist the parents in caring for their children outside of school,

originally regarded as the main objects of a parents' association, is quite a different rôle from that in which the teacher enters into an organized plan for sharing the responsibility for the child outside of school, or where the teacher and parent together undertake a systematic study of all the influences surrounding the child in the hope of increasing his welfare. The emphasis on this inclusive co-operation, as indicated in the latter plan, is that which distinguishes the new parents' association from the old, and, moreover, the spontaneity which characterizes the general organization of parents' associations today, reflects the principle of joint responsibility in the development of the child.

As a type of these societies the Public Education Association of New York City may be cited. Its announced methods are:

1. Regular visiting of kindergarten, day and evening schools, and recreation centers by volunteer committees.
2. Examination of all legislation affecting schools.
3. Attendance at meetings of the Board of Education.
4. Monthly conferences with principals, teachers, and parents.
5. Special investigations and reports with expert aid.
6. Initiation of new work.

Similar organizations, under various names, exist in a large number of communities. Philadelphia, Memphis, Sioux City, Iowa, and Valley City, North Dakota, send reports of such work. In Boston some twenty parents' organizations are now united in a central body.

VI

So far we have considered the activity of the public. What now of the activity of the school? There is, first, the continuous *adaptation of school work to individual needs and capacities*.

In spite of reaction and in spite of misuse, the *principle* behind the elective system is gradually working out into practice everywhere. We are beginning to see that social unity is served, not hindered, by the recognition, in education, of the differences between child and child and age and age. *Equal* opportunity does not mean the *same* opportunity.

The first topic here deals with (a) *backward and deficient pupils*. The problem of aiding the backward, deficient, or non-English-speaking pupils has received serious attention for the last few years. Various plans have been adopted in solving this question. The Batavia system, the "floating teacher," and the assistant teacher have all had their adherents. In many instances these plans have been tried and superseded by the special room, in which such pupils are isolated for the time being from the regular graded rooms. These special classes are ungraded as a rule, and are limited in size in order that individual instruction may be secured. This plan effects several decided advantages. The regular classrooms are relieved of a serious drag, and the progress is correspondingly greater. The pupils in the special room are encouraged to exert themselves, and a large proportion of those who would be obliged to repeat the work of the year are enabled to return to their proper grade. This work is particularly valuable to the pupils coming from foreign schools, who are deficient only in English, and to those who through illness, or some other temporary setback, have fallen but slightly behind the passing rank. In some school systems the special room is available to those showing unusual aptitude. Such pupils, with some individual attention, are enabled to pass into the next higher grade, and thus save a year in their education.

Many private schools are laying particular stress upon individual instruction. A brief outline of two characteristic methods is sufficient to indicate the trend of this work. In one day-school in New York City, the boys are placed in small classes, with care to have the boys of each class of nearly equal ability and standing. These classes range from two to seven pupils. A boy whose needs are even thus not met receives individual instruction after the regular school hours or upon Saturday, the usual holiday. Attendance at such times is compulsory and not voluntary.

In a second private school, in Lexington, Mass., each boy is provided with a tutoring notebook. When a difficulty arises in his regular class work, he is requested to make a note of the difficulty. Each boy is assigned a regular half-hour period

during the day, in which these difficulties are cleared up. The boys are requested to give their judgment of their needs, in order to develop a habit of self-analysis.

Needham reports: "We have also found it very helpful in the work in the four lower grades, to allow the teachers to dismiss school half an hour early twice each week so that any children who have lost important work because of illness, etc., may have individual attention for that length of time, without causing longer hours and, consequently, over strain. Properly managed, the child does not consider this a penalty, but a favor; and the parents like it very much."

A special class, needing special work, is the class (perennial!) of (*b*) *truants*. The movement toward the isolation of the truant, which has become firmly established in several cities, notably Providence, R. I., has been recognized in Boston by the establishment of disciplinary classes in two schools. It has been found in Boston, as elsewhere, that this has resulted in an improvement in the deportment, attendance, and progress of such pupils. Besides these classes, which are a part of the public-school system, a close co-operation has been established between the Parental School and the public schools. The Board of Trustees of the former have adopted a set of regulations modeled upon the regulations of the public schools. The rules for appointment, promotion, and leave of absence of the teachers are the same in this school as those in the public schools.

Here is a new idea on the much-vexed problem of (*c*) *marking*. Superintendent Asher J. Jacoby, of Milton, Mass., has had the plan in successful application for two years. The plan is simply this: every teacher records every two months all the facts about the application, work, and deportment of each pupil, not in letters, nor in percentages, but in words—plain English, that will give a parent a full knowledge of his child's standing. Mr. Jacoby says the plan works.

An experiment in (*d*) *study* is reported by Superintendent Kratz, of Calumet, Mich. He has tried to eliminate the waste of time in mere "sitting over books." His plan is simple—supervised study, practical demonstration of gain through concentra-

tion, and the arousing of enthusiasm for better mental habits and more self-control. No mechanical appliance is serviceable here, but direct attention to habits of mind and a practical and moral appeal to improve them are well worth while.

Attempts to work out better schemes for (c) *promotion* still continue. New Bedford has adopted the semi-annual promotion plan, long in use in New York and elsewhere. It has become clear that some form of promotion by groups or divisions is better than the lock-step scheme of promoting whole classes yearly. One master says the Cambridge plan "reduces the problem of discipline 50 per cent." It stimulates the individual and often prevents too early abandonment of school for work.

A much-needed reform in the administration of the (f) *election of high-school studies and courses* is gradually gaining ground. Our last report noted the tendency toward more careful co-operation between teachers, parents, and pupils in determining individual curricula. This year we have heard from the high school in Jersey City, in which place parents are reached by circular letters and "elective pamphlets." Still better work is being done in Boston to help the pupils of the grammar schools to decide what high school to enter: representatives of the different high schools are asked to visit the grammar schools to set before the pupils just what their schools stand for and into what paths of life they lead.

Many who leave the high school, however, are face to face with the necessity of (g) *choosing a vocation*. To offset lack of knowledge on the part of the pupils, a survey of trades and business opportunities is offered in some schools as a regular part of the school programme. In the Staples High School, Westport, Conn., this work is done by investigation, reports, and study of appropriate literature by the pupils; in the Boston High School of Commerce it is done by a series of weekly talks by the business men of the city. Such courses deal with the opportunities for work, the qualities necessary for success in the several fields, and the best way to prepare for efficiency in each. What the Vocation Bureau, a Boston philanthropy, does in this direction can best be illustrated by a concrete case. This is public

effort at "social diagnosis and prescription;" it is reported here partly to emphasize the value of what the schools now do in this way and partly to emphasize the fact that they do not do enough.

Vocation Bureau.

CASE 12. FROM BOOTBLACKING TO SIGN PAINTING

Boy of 19. Small, thin, weak. Grammar school education. Very little reading. Memory poor. His father drives an express wagon. Went to work at 14. Successively, office boy at \$3 a week, florist's helper at \$4.50 a week, and driver of delivery wagon for provision store at \$5 and \$6 a week. Got sick and lost his job. Went to work blacking boots at a stand in a Billiard Hall. Loves music and drawing. Spends spare time with pencil and cornet. Saved \$63 to buy a silver cornet and \$38 for lessons, while he was making \$4.50 and \$5 a week. Gave his mother half and saved the rest for cornet and lessons. Thought of studying to take civil service examinations for clerkship in post-office.

Counsellor asked him to bring some of his sketches. He did so. They showed considerable ability in outline work and lettering. Best points evidently in drawing and music.

SUGGESTIONS

"If all the boys in Boston were to be divided into classes according to their special aptitudes and abilities, in what class would you belong? Is there anything you can do that most of the boys could not do so well?"

"Most of them cannot play the cornet, or draw as well as I can, I think."

"How would you like to use your ability for drawing and lettering by getting to be a sign painter?"

"I would like it very much."

"Well, practice a little every day or several times a day, if possible. Watch the signs on the streets and copy the best ones. Study the advertisements in good magazines. Copy the lettering. Reproduce it from memory over and over again till you have mastered several good alphabets, plain and ornamental, and can use them at will in making signs and designs of your own. Borrow an engraver's book to get all the letters of each style in a complete group. When you have mastered a few kinds of letters so you can do plain and fancy lettering easily and rapidly, try to get a place in one of these sign-making shops and work up. If you do well and save your money as you did for the cornet you may be able in a few years to start a shop of your own. Don't drop your music; you may get into a band some day, though it is doubtful if you are strong enough to rely on that as a business."

Some weeks later the Counsellor met the young man in the subway. He had followed the suggestions made to him, had developed considerable skill and facility in lettering, got a place in an excellent shop and was

making signs to his heart's content. Had one of them with him on the way to delivery, a very creditable piece of work, and he was brimming over with enthusiasm and happiness—did not seem like the same boy who had come a few weeks before to see how he could get a start.

FRANK PARSONS, *Counsellor*

Had this boy no talent for drawing while he was in the elementary school? If he had, why did he ever become an office boy?

VII

A truly social point of view in education does not shut out the purpose to increase the power and significance of the individual life. It calls upon us, however, to read individual *distinction* in terms of social service. Skill at a trade, or command of business processes, is preparation for a special social obligation: a good physique, discriminating taste, high ideals, and increasing knowledge ought not only to make the individual life more significant (and doubtless, too, to increase the earning power of the man), but also to prepare him for his larger social responsibilities. We are beginning to see the social (and so the educational) significance of fields which educators have heretofore avoided. In what follows now we have therefore, *education for individual attainment and the larger social responsibilities: a wider view and a closer grasp*.

The first topic is (a) *physical education*. Perhaps the most marked change of educational policy now in process is to be noted in increased regard for the body. Advance has been phenomenal along two distinct lines—increased concern for physical protection and welfare on the one hand, and increased attention to the significance of physical activity as a factor in general education, on the other. The policy of medical inspection of schools has spread with remarkable rapidity, being adopted or agitated in every section of the country, and at the same time having its scope rapidly widened. From the narrow conception of a mere defense against contagious disease, which gave it its start in many places, it has come to concern itself with every phase of child-welfare within the purview of the school, and now is extending itself, by means of the school nurse, into

the homes, thus taking a first step toward affording to parents such education for their responsibilities as has hitherto been denied them, while it has been insisted on in the case of teachers.

One branch of medical inspection to receive considerable attention during the past year has been that of dental and oral hygiene. Reports from investigations in New York, Baltimore, and other cities in the United States and abroad, have revealed startling conditions in the teeth of school children. The town of Brookline has made a special effort in dental inspection, and in the Pierce School teachers have succeeded in arousing great interest on the part of the pupils in taking care of the teeth. A summary of the work in Brookline is found in the pamphlet published by Dr. William H. Potter, of Boston, on *The Teeth of Public School Children: How Can They Be Improved?* As further evidence of the increased interest in this subject, witness the Conference on Dental and Oral Hygiene with special reference to school children, held in Boston in January of this year.

Of similar significance is the work of the Bureau of Child Hygiene instituted by the New York Board of Health, which reaches into the homes to instruct the parents of the new-born child.

The establishment of tuberculosis classes is another method of carrying education of a practical kind into the homes for the improvement of living conditions.

The Providence open-air school, noted in the report of last year, is being reproduced in other localities.

Gymnastics, like medical inspection, have as their aim physical welfare. They are the grammar and the rhetoric of physical training. They have to do with the correcting of defects, the counteracting of evil tendencies, and the increase of physical power. They may and should, however, extend into the aesthetic field, and aim not merely to develop the body as an efficient mechanism, but to render it aptly expressive of personality. This side of gymnastic instruction is receiving increased attention, particularly in the use of folk dances and of plays and games introducing the simpler social forms and customs.

If gymnastics are to correct physical defects, counteract un-

fortunate tendencies, and develop physical responsiveness, it follows that instructors are needed who are qualified to perceive defects and tendencies, and to prescribe for them; qualified also to kindle an aspiration for physical and personal perfection, and to point the way. The growth of normal schools and summer schools for training physical directors has been phenomenal, and they are as yet wholly unable to meet the demand. Twenty-five high schools in New England, outside of Boston, report the employment of physical directors. It is notable that regard for the welfare of girls seems to have claimed first attention. Eleven of the twenty-five physical directors so reported are for girls alone.

The relation of the schools toward athletics has evolved by a slow process through four distinct stages. As in all such changes, some schools linger in each of the several stadia:

First, the deprecatory stage, in which the school authorities preserve an armed neutrality, maintaining that school means business while athletics mean play, and that the two are foreign to each other and should keep their distance.

Second, the condescending stage, in which it is conceded that boys will be boys; that they must work off certain pent-up vapors of a poisonous or possibly explosive nature, secreted in the process of school work and liable to do damage by over-charge; hence athletics are a necessary evil to be regulated, a safety valve to be kept down until the pressure approaches the danger point.

Third, the stage of recognition, which perceives that athletics are good for the body; that a sound mind will work better in a sound body; and therefore accepts physical activity in its place as well as mental activity in its place; encourages the discipline of the body on the athletic field as a valuable preparation for the discipline of the mind in school, and supervises in a sympathetic spirit the conduct of games and the management of finances.

Fourth, the stage of adoption, which realizes the significance of spontaneous activity in the development of personality; which looks beyond the mere physical benefits of sports and recognizes that true education has to do not merely with mental activity

here and physical activity there, but with the interaction of intellect and emotion and muscle and will; that to qualify a student for life in which all these are to be brought simultaneously into play the school must practice him in such combined activities under wholesome and stimulating conditions, and with intelligent solicitude; that athletics and all other student enterprises, social, literary, musical, dramatic, therefore constitute essential and powerful instruments for use in the process of education; instruments which the school must learn to wield skilfully, and which are liable to dangerous misuse if left to be wielded by those outsiders who ever stand ready to seize upon any agency that can be turned to private gain. This means the taking over of athletics, assuming full responsibility for them, maintaining a school athletic field, making the coach an instructor of the student instead of the strategist of a border campaign, and diversifying sports to benefit the mass of students instead of professionalizing a few of the physically fit in a single sport for its particular season.

At present the professional coach prevails to the extent of about half the high schools of New England of over 250 students. He taps the athletic treasury for from ten to five hundred dollars for the season. His energies are devoted to organizing victory over outside teams. Incidentally he may look after the immediate physical welfare of the members of the team so far as he knows how. He may even lend support to the ordained scholarship standard, and he may be relied upon to foster certain ideals of loyalty and self-sacrifice, which are superficially good, but which in their application savor somewhat of that patriotism which links the old flag with an appropriation. His policy is to reduce the team to the discipline of professionals for the time being. He is a despot in his way, and visits due displeasure upon any of his squad who may condescend to participate in informal games with their uncaparisoned schoolmates.

The distinct physical benefits of his training are obscure. It is time we had systematic physical records of team members so that the physical records of coaching might be traced. It is certain that the physical effects of football, at least, are not all

beneficial. Boils and blood poisoning not seldom disfigure the recipients of athletic honors. Instances of over-training are plenty, and reaction from the excessive stimulus of grandstand applause and anticipated glory resembles quite too closely the reaction from other stimulants.

The physical organism at the high-school age is an exceedingly delicate engine. If the school is to take the responsibility of putting it to severe strain it should impose every safeguard. It is needful to promote its efficiency for the present and future tasks, not of Indian warfare or dime novel adventure, but of the manly and womanly pursuits of civilized society. This means regard for good respiration, which is the draft of our engine, good digestion, which is its fire-box, good circulation, which is its boiler, good muscle, which is its belting and shafting, good nerves, which are its valve control. It means a fair balance between its several functions rather than the excessive enlargement of one or two. It means good breathing, deep and easy, more likely in the future to be tested by strenuous demands upon strength and endurance of voice than upon speed of limb or muscular prowess. It means good standing habits, good sitting habits, good walking habits, good physical expression in the ordinary intercourse of society, and good means of recreation in future. These are the tests of good physical training. That a sport does not stand up well under these tests throws doubt upon its value from the physical view-point. It is further delinquent in this particular if it is not capable of being played informally and so cannot spread indirect benefits to those students who play for fun, or be readily available for recreation in after life. Such a sport may nevertheless, apart from its direct physical effects, be of high educational value as bringing into combined action many of those qualities and resources which make for social and industrial efficiency. The direction of sports upon such a basis requires not a professional coach but a professional teacher, holding steadfastly to the ideals of a teacher, and dependent for his position not upon what are known as the sporting interests but upon the educational interests of the community.

This view is taken and successfully maintained by a small but increasing number of schools, and this policy is looked forward to by most schools. Boston, by a special law, places upon the school authorities the responsibility of carrying on games and play in playgrounds and schoolyards, and employing instructors therefor. New York has a far-reaching athletic organization among children of all grades, encouraging competition by schools, by rooms, and by groups. Several cities in New England have discarded the professional coach and placed coaching for all sports in the hands of their physical directors, who also train in gymnastics, and whose athletic aim is physical zest and skill in combination with worthy ideals of honor and success, rather than competitive superiority in any one sport. One western school of considerable size reports fourteen baseball and twenty-two basket-ball teams, with other sports in like proportion. Some of the large private schools have found means to enlist all students in all sports. St. Paul's assigns each student to one of three permanent groups which compete for honors in all sports, and loyalty to the group aids the instructor in securing that varied activity which makes for all-around physical development. This group system would seem suggestive for public schools. The Volkmann school has a system of physical education consisting of gymnastics supplemented by voluntary games upon the athletic field under supervision. A physical record is kept; students are given credit for effort and success, this credit being accorded equal weight with credit in the several studies in making up a student's standing.

The cry of nearly all schools is for less interscholastic games, more games within the school, suitable fields, and physical directors employed like other instructors. The range of sports followed in New England schools is very narrow. Of about seventy schools of over 250 students reported, 66 support a baseball team; 55 a football team; 17 report no considerable attention to any other sport; 17 report attention to track events; 23 to basket-ball; 5 to hockey; 4 to tennis; one each to golf, cross-country runs, soccer football, and rowing. Boxing is in vogue in some of the New York schools. One Massachusetts private school

in which football is tabooed finds a satisfactory and exhilaratory substitute in military maneuvers carried on by two opposing squads. In another school, cross-country walks are found interesting and useful. One district of the city of Pittsburg is experimenting with daily respiratory exercise, employing spirometers, and reports surprising results in increased lung capacity.

A great obstacle to the endeavor of the public schools to give to physical education the place to which it is entitled, is the obstacle of "ways and means." Not only is it difficult to secure adequate funds for the purpose from the public treasury, but it is made the more difficult by reason of the extravagance which has grown up under the system of professional coaching and gate receipts. The game of football has become excessively expensive in proportion to the number of students concerned. A large proportion of schools have derived their resources from admission fees, during the evolution of school football from the day of the old-fashioned informal game to the present era of armor-plated players and subsidized officials. Can a public school assimilate this source of revenue along with the sports which have fed upon it? This question is being forced upon attention wherever progress is making in athletics.

It is everywhere recognized that gate receipts, as hitherto handled, are a menace to the very ideals which it is the business of the schools to rear. Almost without exception the schools have been forced to take over the financial control and place it in the hands of some teacher to avoid recognized perils. The question is, Can gate receipts be abolished and, if so, can public money be substituted? Boston proposes to abolish them and to place the expense upon the public treasury. The experiment will be watched with interest. But Boston has had her tax limit raised to provide the necessary funds for physical education, and even if she succeeds in carrying the whole burden, the problem may still be unsolved for those towns whose tax limit is already far above that of Boston.

The same question arises in other departments of education. Is there anything really sacred about taxes and appropriations? Can the public have nothing unless it can be paid for out of the

public treasury? May it not be possible to allow the public to pay out of its private purse for some things which it is willing to pay for and will benefit by? The public school must certainly appropriate the group activities of its students as an integral part of public education. Must it load the whole expense upon the public treasury or may it frankly accept gate receipts within moderate bounds and administer them economically and safely as a public fund for the improvement of recreative facilities? There is something to be said for the benefits derived by a considerable portion of the public who play the game by proxy, and are willing to pay their substitutes. Where might the money go if it were refused by the athletic management?

Independently of schools, the movement for public playgrounds and recreative facilities has extended over the country with remarkable rapidity. It is being expedited by the Playground Association of America, organized for the promotion of outdoor recreation. Singularly, provision for adult playthings has taken precedence both in time and in proportion of expense of that for the playthings of small children.

In connection with the playground movement the question most widely agitated is where the control shall be lodged. The state law of New Jersey provides for a special playground commission. In many localities the relation of playgrounds to the park system and the method of land-taking has carried the control in the first instance to the park commissioners; but the educational nature of their management leads some to advocate their being in the hands of the school authorities, as is now the case in Boston.

In (*b*) *aesthetic education* there is a field so large that it is quite impossible here to cover it. We can note only these lines of advance: more beautiful school buildings, schoolrooms, and school decorations; the general movement to make the fine arts a vital part of the curriculum in all grades of schools; the tendency to emphasize beauty as well as use in manual training; the increasing educational efforts of art museums; the awakened public conscience as to civic beauty. A few details must suffice for illustration. The superintendent of drawing in the Cam-

bridge schools, Mr. P. Roos, in connection with a committee of the Cambridge Municipal Art Society, including Professor H. L. Warren and Professor J. S. Pray, has arranged for two years, in connection with the regular drawing work in the upper grades of the Cambridge schools, a prize competition for the best solution of a problem in landscape design set by the committee. The problem one year involved the planning of a small house lot; the boundaries, the location of the house, and certain other features being given. The problem this year was greatly simplified and limited to the treatment of a typical back yard. The second detail is significant, even if viewed from a cynical standpoint: the *Boston Herald* has given up its Sunday comic supplement as inartistic and uneducational.

Attempts to recognize achievement in instrumental music as worthy of school credit are increasing. The Brookline plan for giving credit for private instruction duly attested is matched by the New Bedford scheme of giving credit to those who win a place on the high-school orchestra. The latter scheme has no insignificant social value.

In (c) *moral and religious education* progress has been so marked as to demand a volume. As distinctively religious we note the denominational activity; interdenominational work, such as the remarkable achievements of the Religious Education Association; the training of teachers; the preparation of courses of study pedagogically conceived; and the creation of better textbooks.

There is an extraordinary awakening of interest in moral issues in education and greater and greater insistence on direct moral instruction in the schools. As yet no very practicable scheme has come to our attention, unless it be the scheme of Miss Jane Brownlee, of Toledo, whereby a selected ethical topic engages the close attention of a class for a considerable time, with discussions and appropriate exercises.

From the Braintree High School the headmaster sends the following report: I have collected certain books which deal with sex problems, character-building, conduct, etc., and, with the consent of the parents, I have lent them to my boys, while the women teachers have done the same for the girls. At irregular

intervals, as individuals or by groups, the lessons taught are impressed by short talks and the students are told that the teachers stand ready at any time to discuss personal problems with them.

Under (*d*) *social education*, it is safe to say that there has been a spread of the ideas advanced in the Social Education Congress held in Boston some years ago. It is plain that school methods may have much to do with the development of effective loyalty, and that group work has a permanent place in school procedure as a method directly preparing for social living.

VIII

But individual attainment, and culture (even considered from a strictly social point of view) can no longer be considered the sole aims of the school. *Adjustment of school work to social conditions and to special social obligations* has become a necessity. The first topic to note here is (*a*) *schooling for "poor whites" in the South*. From now on, these must be taken into account in any consideration of national education. Within six years many of these schools have developed from the crudest beginning with one or two pupils, without financial support, to sturdy institutions accommodating two hundred or more pupils. The history of all these schools is similar. Beginning with pupils who had never seen a book, who regarded labor as a disgrace, at least for a man, coming from homes of the utmost squalor, they have fitted them for colleges, normal schools, or to become modern scientific farmers. The trend in all these schools is toward industrial education. Besides regular instruction in vocational subjects, the house and farm work is carried on by the pupils as a definite part of the school life. Many of these schools report a pathetic eagerness for education. In some instances such schools are receiving a small state appropriation, and their graduates are received by state universities without examination. In the main their graduates go out to preach the gospel of hard, intelligent work, and to introduce modern methods into the industrial life of their community.

(*b*) *Rural schools*. The rural school problem is being solved in many districts by consolidation. In Massachusetts this move-

ment is no longer an experiment, but has become a settled policy. Connecticut, New Jersey, Ohio, Kansas, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, Iowa, Nebraska, South Dakota, and Colorado are all rapidly abandoning weak schools, and establishing consolidated schools. To a greater or less extent such schools are found in thirty states of the Union. All the reports of this movement bear witness to the fact that it raises the standard of education, admits of more hygienic conditions, and effects a decided economy in expense.

In recognition of the fact that in many localities the rural school must remain, a genuine effort is being made to make these schools more attractive and convenient. This attempt has been most carefully worked out in Illinois. Standard plans for the school buildings, for heating, lighting, ventilating, and equipment are issued by the State Department of Education. It is reported that in Illinois there are 4,281 rural schools of the best type, 5,263 in an average condition, and 1,094 utterly lacking in every feature. The percentage of excellence is higher than in any state that has come to our attention.

In the memory of the "Conservation Congress," and in the full cry of agitation for the preservation of our forests, we do not apologize for indicating by the term (*c*) *Forestry* a social obligation to be met by the school. The national interest in forestry has made itself felt outside the several university departments of forestry. A committee has been appointed by the National Education Association "to investigate and make known the material suitable for science instruction, available or which can be made available, in the Forest Service and elsewhere in the executive government." This committee is to report at the next meeting of the association.

A concrete instance of instruction in forestry is found at Marion, Mass. Three acres of land, two recently cut off, and one of sprout land, have been given to the grammar school for experimental purposes. The plan is to give each boy a square rod to develop as he sees fit for three years, of course with proper guidance.

A school of forestry in the Berkshire Mountains is to be

opened this fall. A farm of 1,000 acres has been purchased, and will be equipped with school buildings. No prospectus has been issued as yet, so the plan of the school is unknown.

But the most marked progress in meeting social conditions is evident in the effort of the school to prepare pupils for the special social obligation entailed in a vocation. In (*d*) *the progress of vocational secondary schools* we have a large and constantly expanding field. Secondary schools of commerce have shown rapid gains: this is evident in the increase in membership in cities where these schools already exist, notably New York, Boston, and Philadelphia, and also in other cities, such as Chicago, Cleveland, and Philadelphia, where new schools are being founded. Plans for a girls' commercial school are being perfected in the city of Philadelphia. Technical and manual-training schools are likewise showing increase, as in the new technical high schools at Newton, Cincinnati, and in the enlargement of the Mechanic Arts High School, Boston. The Girls' High School of Practical Arts, Boston, has shown a wonderful increase during the past year. It is becoming clear that vocational secondary schools must have opportunity to make experiments and that the whole process of making courses of study, selecting teachers, and administering school problems must be opened up so that the newer type of school shall have the necessary freedom to find itself. Advisory committees of vocational experts have been of much help here. An important feature of secondary vocational schools is the "part-time" course. The successful experiment of the University of Cincinnati has been adapted for use in the Fitchburg (Mass.) High School and in the Throop Polytechnic Institute of Pasadena, Cal.

The past year has been one of great progress in industrial education. In Massachusetts, both day and evening schools have been established, each to fill a distinct province in industrial education. The courses in these schools are designed to meet the needs of pupils who are occupied as workers during the day, and have been planned to meet local conditions. In Beverly, evening instruction is given in the high-school building, and includes courses in machine drawing, architectural drawing, freehand

industrial drawing, shop mathematics, applied science, and gas engines. The Boston Evening Industrial School is located in the building occupied by the Mechanic Arts High School and has six branches in different parts of the city; the courses offered include industrial drawing, industrial mathematics, steam engineering for firemen, and jig and tool making. The courses in the Brockton Evening Industrial Schools are: industrial drawing (including architectural and mechanical), steam engineering, sewing, dressmaking, and millinery. New Bedford has established an industrial school for children of 14 to 18. While this is legally an independent school, it is proposed to affiliate it very closely with the high school. The buildings of both schools have common access to gymnasium, library, assembly room, etc. It is hoped that a free mixing of pupils in both schools in social and general activities may tend to prevent the establishment of lines of cleavage such as sometimes develop when schools of culture and vocation are established in different buildings in different locations. A director has been appointed, general plans for the curriculum have been worked out, and the industrial school, the first under the law, is expected to open in September.

Private institutions for some time past have fostered industrial education. New institutions for that purpose are arising yearly. In Boston, during the past year, the Franklin Union was opened; this enterprise was made possible partly by money left by Benjamin Franklin for that purpose and partly by money given by Andrew Carnegie. A large number of railroads of the country support some kind of an industrial school to aid them in getting intelligent help.

The cause of agricultural education has been advancing rapidly for the past ten years. The state agricultural colleges came first and now are appearing county agricultural schools, agricultural high schools, agricultural courses for small rural schools, and courses in agriculture organized by the state educational departments. State governments and the federal government are taking great interest in the movement: this interest is manifested in the model farms in the South, in the help given to agricultural colleges, in demonstration trains, in publishing

pamphlets of interest and value to farmers, in sending out seeds, and in promoting farmers' institutes.

The interest on the part of some states is manifest by a recital of what some have done. In Missouri the normal schools are giving courses in agricultural education. In Michigan separate agricultural high schools and county schools of agriculture have been established; normal schools give courses; and the Agricultural College has inaugurated a four-year correspondence course to bring knowledge to the farm. The Michigan workers are laboring in the spirit of the following quotation from their public-school course: "Agriculture in the public schools is in an experimental state: we submit it in the hope that we may all grow in the knowledge of what can and what ought to be done." In Massachusetts the North Adams State Normal School is doing efficient work in agricultural education by correlating efforts with the State Agricultural College at Amherst. The town of Ashfield promotes thrift in agricultural pursuits by offering yearly prizes to school children for best gardens in home and school. This is done also in Waltham. Wisconsin has been in the front rank of states in promoting agricultural education. Separate high schools have been established and four county schools are doing good work. The aim of these county schools is to reach the farmer as directly as possible; they not only provide for instruction for regular students but also act as consulting agricultural engineers to the farmers of the neighborhood; they promote institutes, plan buildings, test soil and seeds, and plan work for rural schools. They also offer valuable short courses of two weeks for the farmers. The Wisconsin College of Agriculture has established a "short course" of three months: it is being attended by increasing numbers of young men who can apply directly on the farm in the spring what they have learned during the winter. California and Alabama have established courses in agriculture for public high schools. In Texas the state laws require the teaching of elementary agriculture in all schools of the state having an enrolment of fewer than three hundred pupils. In Louisiana the new state course of study offers an agricultural four years' course parallel to the literary

and business courses. "Minnesota is very much in earnest with reference to the agricultural training and instruction, in order that it may be made both more general and more practical." As supplementing the valuable work of the agricultural college, instruction is given in summer schools and institutes, theoretical work is done in the rural schools, and practical and experimental work is taken up in the high schools. A less tangible evidence of progress in agricultural education, but by no means less pronounced, is the spirit of the farmers toward the movement. Their attitude has changed from one of indifference or opposition to one of hearty support. They have come to recognize the worth of the movement to them. The way that one farmer was won over to agricultural education is interesting: he had been boasting that such education was valueless for practical purposes; a young man who had had the benefit of such instruction volunteered that he could keep milk sweeter for a longer time than the farmer could; and the farmer was won over to agricultural education when the young man made good his offer by 24 hours.

IX

Education is growing complex with the complexity of life; and schools nowadays stand in as much need of organization as does our social and economic order. Aside from the social organization which the school helps to produce, there is the direct *organization of school forces*.

To organize efficiently, a large system must get at the proper (a) *statistics*, which is our first topic.

During the year at least one suggestive and valuable study of school statistics has been published and the attention of educators directed to the need of further work in this field. The Bureau of Statistics of Labor, of Massachusetts, has compiled some new and interesting statistics about "The Cost of Municipal Government in Massachusetts." A publication under the above title appeared in August, 1908, and is the first annual report on the comparative financial statistics of cities and towns. It contains such valuable information as "division of expenses of

municipal departments," "per capita" expenses, "per pupil" expenses, "current" expenses, and "average expense" for all cities.

Statistics were collected this year for the first time by the Bureau of Immigration to find out the nationalities of pupils attending schools. Their statistics will show how the children of immigrants are taking advantage of our educational institutions.

(b) *Exchange of teachers* serves as a means of bringing new life into a school. The exchange of teachers between nations, which has been a practice with universities for a few years past, was introduced into the secondary-school system during the past year. In this country the Carnegie Institution has fostered the movement. Our schools will benefit both by the ideas brought by the visiting teachers and also by the ideas brought back by the returning teachers. Exchange thus far has been made only with Prussia. Why not exchange between states and sections?

(c) *Professional study*. It is a fundamental pedagogic principle that the school is no better than the teachers in charge, from which it follows that all permanent improvements in the schools must come through improving the status of the teacher. The past year has witnessed the establishment of professional courses for teachers in colleges in all parts of the country. The University of Georgia reports the establishment of the Peabody College of Education, which is designed to prepare high-school teachers, principals, superintendents, and supervisors of special subjects, especially agriculture, nature-study, and manual training. Swarthmore College has also just established a permanent department of psychology and education. The western states, by recent legislation, have taken a step forward in providing professional training for teachers. Every college in Nebraska has established a department of education. The State University of Nebraska has established a Teachers College to meet the demands which recent legislation has made upon teachers for scholastic and professional training. Tulane University, in Louisiana, and Ohio State University have also established teachers' colleges. Of special value here is the investigation and report prepared for the School Committee of Boston by a select committee of twelve teachers. This committee was "to investigate the opportunities for study acces-

sible to Boston teachers, having especially in mind courses in evening and summer schools of such nature that teachers who so desire may obtain credit sufficient to enable them to complete a college course in a sabbatical year." This committee secured data from the colleges and universities easily accessible from Boston, and summarized it under four heads: first, entrance requirements of candidates for a degree; second, credit given for previous work; third, collegiate work required for the bachelor's degree; fourth, special provisions, residence, and fees. This report has already had valuable results in directing teachers toward the opportunities near at hand for scholastic and professional improvement. The report of this committee, whose chairman was Miss Florence Leadbetter, will be found in full in the report of the Superintendent for 1907-8. Teachers in other cities and towns are awakening to the importance of continuous study as a requisite for professional progress. Meriden, Conn., furnishes an instance of what a school committee can do in encouraging such efforts on the part of the teachers. In that city the school committee offered "to still further increase the salaries of those teachers who had already attained the maximum through years of experience." About ninety teachers combined to employ instructors from Yale University who gave two courses for teachers, one on psychology, another on literature. Gloucester reports a very successful Teachers' Lecture Course, which has been in operation for eleven seasons. The advantages of this course have been enjoyed by teachers of neighboring towns as well. The Teachers' Educational League of Memphis, Tenn., is an organization that has done much for the general improvement of teachers and schools, through its courses of lectures and the publication of a quarterly magazine. Monson and Framingham likewise report lectures and discussions conducted under the auspices of teachers.

The demand on the part of high schools for well-trained teachers in commercial subjects is making itself felt in the normal schools. Some of the normal schools are now offering special courses to prepare teachers for these positions.

(d) *Salaries.* One of the most promising steps toward

improving schools through improvement in the teachers is found in the plan of increasing salaries on the basis of merit rather than on years of service exclusively. Boston, Chicago, and Baltimore have carefully defined statements of promotional examinations. The whole subject of promotion has been carefully examined by a Committee of the New York City Teachers' Association. This report was published about a year ago. Another valuable report on this subject was made in January, 1908, by Superintendent F. E. Spaulding, of the Newton, Mass., public schools, and the recommendations of this report have been adopted by the school committee and establish the principle that beyond a certain point the salaries of teachers will be increased only on the basis of merit regardless of additional years of experience. Other places which have adopted the merit system as a basis for salary increase are Bradford and St. Johnsbury, Vt., Meriden, Conn., Springfield, Mass., Baltimore, Md., and Seattle, Wash. Satisfactory action on the certification and the promotion of teachers has been taken recently in Ohio, Minnesota, Rhode Island, Connecticut, Vermont, New Hampshire, and Maine. Provision for the sabbatical year has also been made in Newton, Cambridge, and Brookline. The state superintendent of Louisiana has recommended to the school board of the state that they pay any teacher who attends a summer school for nine weeks, and receives a certificate that satisfactory work was done, five dollars a month more than would have been paid if he had not attended a summer school.

Another important report which has appeared within the past year is that of the Committee of Essex County (Massachusetts) Teachers' Association on teachers' salaries and their relation to permanency of tenure and professional ability. This committee secured data on such subjects as the relation between teachers' salaries and the demands of the public; the income from teaching compared with the income of stenographers and professional nurses; the grade teachers' domestic obligations. Among interesting facts revealed by this report is the large percentage of teachers who contribute to the support of others, the percentage in one city being 60, while many others report from 20 to 40 per cent.

Closely connected with the question of increasing salaries is the subject of minimum salary laws. North Dakota reports a minimum salary law of \$45 a month. During the year ending June 30, 1908, the average monthly salaries for school teachers in that state were increased from \$46.85 to \$48.56.

(e) *Pensions.* Progress in Pension Legislation is to be noted for the past year. The State School Law of New Jersey provides that any teacher in the service of the state who does not join the Teachers' Retirement Fund on or before January 1, 1909, cannot join at all. New teachers *must* become members. The annuities paid in New Jersey under the state law amount to 60 per cent. of the average salary for the last five years of service. No annuity shall be more than \$650 nor less than \$250. Applicants must have been in public-school service in New Jersey at least twenty years and be incapacitated from performing duties of a teacher. Annuitants are permitted to engage in other occupations. Membership in the Teachers' Retirement Fund does not prevent the person from receiving a pension from the state, under the Thirty-five Year District Half-Pay Pension Law, which was approved May 7, 1908. The Teachers' Annuity Fund, it should be noticed, is maintained entirely by the assessments of teachers' salaries, which vary from 2 to 3 per cent. according to the length of service at the time of joining.

A Rhode Island law providing for teachers' pensions went into effect on January 1, 1908. This law provides pensions for those teachers who have reached the age of sixty years, providing that they have been engaged in teaching for thirty-five years, twenty-five of which, including fifteen immediately preceding retirement, have been within the state. The amount of pension given in Rhode Island is 50 per cent. of the average salary for the five years immediately preceding retirement. The expense of the act is borne entirely by the state. The actual working of the law will be seen from the following report:

Number retired in June, 1908.....	22
Amount of pensions for one year, total.....	\$1834.85
Highest pension	500.00
Lowest pension	156.40
Average pension	332.93

An act of the Massachusetts Legislature provides that towns and cities may vote on the question of establishing pensions for teachers on petition of five per cent. of the voters. Pennsylvania has also provided for the pensioning of teachers.

Internal school organization has been perfected by means of (*f*) *school faculties and councils*. A distinct advance in the correlation of the same departments in different schools was made in Boston during the past year by the establishment of councils for the heads of departments of the different schools. Regular meetings are held on the first Thursday of each month. Ideas are freely exchanged, textbooks are discussed and recommended, courses are defined, certain uniform plans agreed upon and tendencies noted. The discussions which take place are reported back by each department head to his teachers. One teacher is elected from each council as a delegate to the Headmasters' Association to furnish from time to time whatever information the latter may desire.

The most significant change in courses of study is being made in the Mathematics Council. This Council last June adopted a first-year course of study which comprises some geometry as well as some algebra. This year the Council is at work upon a second-year course of study, and it seems likely that they will approve a programme including a good deal of algebra, as well as geometry, in the second-year work, and postpone all theorems involving the idea of limits—that is, all theorems that deal with incommensurable numbers in geometry—to the third year.

Another proposition that is attracting a great deal of attention in Boston, but not yet formally taken up by the Science Council, is the plan of teaching in the first year of high-school work a series of exercises in general science, containing some physics, some chemistry, and some biology; the object being, of course, not mere information, but a more intelligent attitude toward physical phenomena and more detailed study in the sciences mentioned.

These two movements seem to be phases of an imminent change of attitude on the part of high schools in general. The

high school of the past presented preparation for college as the ideal thing, and a so-called liberal education as a substitute. Very little consideration was given to the pupil who did not complete the high-school course. The sympathies of the administration in most high schools were reserved for those who were to stay through the three- or four-year course necessary for a diploma. The newer attitude is that the high school must give to the pupil who stays in it, even only for a short time, such advantages as may be real and useful to him, though he may not stay to complete a prearranged cycle of effort.

From New Bedford comes this report: For some time the school authorities have been investigating the high school in an attempt to fit it more closely to the local needs of the city. As a feature of this investigation conference meetings with the faculty were held at frequent intervals, with very free discussion. The school was one of the usual type, promoting by classes, rather discouraging special students but offering a considerable variety of courses with many electives. As a result of the investigation the School Board decided that the question of adaptation could be best met by putting the development of the different courses in the hands of specialists, by making it much easier for part time (special) pupils to avail themselves of the opportunities in the school and to avoid the difficulties of "block" promotion by the "point" system. The school was therefore reorganized as follows:

Four departments were established, College Preparatory, General, Commercial, and Applied Science. A head, technically trained and interested in that phase of educational work, was appointed to each department. The headmaster was appointed head of one department. In order that one head should not unduly push his department it was provided that all recommendations, changes in courses of study, etc., should be made on a majority vote of a committee formed of these heads of departments. This is interesting as it is an organization of a high school upon the plan of a university—that is, a group of schools united into a common institution. In all matters relating to a department the head is held directly responsible for results, and

has direct authority. Outside of his own department the headmaster is supposed to work through the heads, thus putting him in the position of a college president with regard to the schools of the university or the departments of the college. Since September, when this arrangement went into effect, so far as it has been developed, it seems to have worked without friction, with an increase of technical efficiency in the departmental work, but it is rather soon to determine just how it will eventually work out.

(g) *Teachers' associations* are showing a marked tendency to departmental organization. The best work done in associations of this character is that of bodies interested in special subjects—the Classical Association, the Modern Language Association, and like societies. These associations are defining the important topics in their several fields, adapting their subjects to individual and to social needs, discussing methods, and affecting college entrance requirements. We present a partial survey of this activity.

The success of the New England History Teachers' Syllabus of History in Secondary Schools, and the need of a similar guide in civil government, led to the appointment of a committee to prepare a syllabus in civil government. This committee has been at work for several years and has recently issued a pamphlet outlining its purpose and methods and giving numerous sample pages to serve as illustrations. These specimen chapters are now being tried in several of the leading cities throughout the country, since it is the purpose of the committee to provide a syllabus that shall be national in its scope. Final action on the question of publishing a complete syllabus will be taken by the Association at its meeting in April of this year. The secretary of this special committee is Professor Lawrence B. Evans, Tufts College, Massachusetts.

The growing importance of household economics has warranted the organization of a special educational body, formed in Washington at the beginning of this year and called the American Home Economic Association. Membership in this Association is open to teachers and professional workers in the various fields of home and institutional economics, and to interested per-

sons in other fields, scientists, hygienists, members of clubs and associations. The association will issue a bimonthly journal of home economics.

Manual-training associations are active. One reports the following signs of progress in the subject:

1. In upper elementary grades, the tendency is to have the manual training contain more industrial ideas without being less cultural. The manual-training work is being arranged so as to impart a desire to enter industrial pursuits.

2. In the lower elementary grades, manual training, in addition to being treated as a subject, is also used to make other subjects more concrete.

3. It is to be noted that a large number of normal schools are now preparing for instruction in manual training, and not only graduating special manual-training teachers, but giving courses of a general character for all students.

A member of the Association of Mathematical Teachers in New England reports unofficially as follows: There is, in the first place, a decided intention on the part of teachers of mathematics to give to secondary algebra and geometry, so far as possible, an appearance of practical content; to emphasize the moderate and helpful use of graphical methods; to insist upon self-responsibility, with numerical checking of results as an aid thereto; and to place greater stress upon accuracy of numerical computation.

In geometry the tendency is to break away from the cut and dried programme that has done its work so well for very nearly a century, and to give to geometry the same sort of setting that is given to other scientific subjects. In particular, the distinction between algebraic and geometric methods is not so strenuously insisted upon.

Probably the subject of arithmetic in the elementary schools is likely to be more profoundly affected in the course of the next few years than either of the secondary school subjects. The tendency there is to combine it effectively with the subject of drawing, and with the processes of measurement as well as with the processes of commercial life. The introduction of the Walter

System in the Boston schools, and the cutting out of commercial elaborations from the course of study in these schools, is a notable instance of this tendency. There is no widespread use of reversed multiplication, so-called, in the elementary schools, but there are two or three instances of its introduction in response to the demand of the high schools. The high-school demand is based upon the necessity of cutting out superfluous figures in multiplication and division; its use there is very widespread, and is rapidly widening.

(h) *College requirements* show one marked trend—a closer regard for the demands of the schools. This is due in large part to the activity of such associations as the New England Association of Teachers of English. New requirements in English, on which that body had some influence, have just been formulated. There is still the tendency merely to combine authoritative requirements from associations representing single subjects. What association will champion the pupil?

A significant change in requirements has been attempted at Harvard within a month—to give German and French equal weight with Latin. Others are likely to follow—and are likely, too, to be framed with little regard to the educational monopoly of a single subject, whatever it may be.

This topic closes our report; but we cannot bow and retire without a word as to the total impression all these facts have made upon us as we placed them in their present setting. Efforts to organize our common life through the agency of education—efforts to organize the forces of education itself: as we have had word of all these strivings and endeavors (in how many fields, with what earnestness of purpose!) we have not only renewed our pride in our profession and our faith in the power and value of its work, but we have seemed to see more clearly that ideal social life wherein the state shall so guard and guide its youth that each in turn, made whole, shall serve the state as a whole man may, rejoicing. And for this vision, as well as for their facts and figures, we thank the many workers who have helped us.